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Team teaching and classroom grouping flexibility are given emphasis. Greater flexibility is needed in the organizational structure of the schools as well. Rather than by grade, divisions should be organized according to primary, intermediary, junior secondary, and senior secondary levels. Flexibility would remove the stigma of a track system. Within such an organization, spiral learning could be considered as part of the curriculum.

The curriculum should encourage problem-solving activities. It should be related closely to the world of work and the world of leisure. Young people need to study the many ways people earn a living. Extracurricular activities may serve as motivational devices to keep students in school.

Crash programs already in operation across the country should be incorporated into the curriculum. These include: work-study programs, summer work camps, job corps, and work-training programs.

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# NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION

quarterly

BRYAN

Let No Such Man Be Trusted: Advice on Hiring Faculty

An Old Chestnut Revisited

Science Programs in Dependents' High Schools

Changing Concepts of Higher Education

What's to Be Done With the Dropout When He Drops Back in?

Publications of the Association

70th Annual Meeting—March 29 to April 1, 1965

VOLUME XXXVIII SPRING, 1964 NUMBER 4

Published by NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS

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**Official Organ of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools**

THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY is published by the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools in Summer, Fall, Winter, and Spring. It is the official organ of the Association, and contains the proceedings of the annual meeting of the Association, together with much additional material directly related to the work of the Association. The regular subscription price is $4.00 a year. The July number is priced at $1.75; the others, $1.00 each. All members of the Association—institutional and individual—are entitled to receive the QUARTERLY as part of their annual fees. A special subscription price of $3.00 per year is permitted to school libraries, college libraries, and public libraries and to individuals connected with North Central Association membership institutions. Subscription orders may be sent to the Executive and Editorial Office.

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# The NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION Quarterly

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The
NORTH CENTRAL
ASSOCIATION
Quarterly

Spring, 1964

VOLUME XXXVIII, NUMBER 4

# Association Notes and Editorial Comment

## HIGHER COMMISSIONS FEDERATE

MARCH 2, 1964 will, we are sure, prove to be an important date in the history of accrediting. This was the day on which the Federation of Regional Accrediting Commissions of Higher Education was organized and held its first meeting. The organization of the Federation was the culmination of a long series of discussions by representatives of the college commissions of the six regional accrediting associations, including the North Central Association.

The commissions have played and will continue to play an important role in strengthening higher education in their respective regions. They foster high quality in higher education through their evaluating and consulting activities, they exert their influence to preserve appropriate balance between general or liberal education and specialized or professional education, and they protect their member institutions against undesirable outside pressures.

But increasingly the issues to be faced in higher education must be viewed in the national rather than a regional context. The professional accrediting agencies to which general accrediting must relate are national organizations. The large private foundations which today exert so strong an influence on higher education operate on a national and even international scale. The Federal Government has come to occupy a place of greatly increased importance in higher education. The general or institution-wide accrediting associations, operating only within their respective regions, are at a disadvantage in promoting and maintaining relationships with agencies that operate at the national level.

Further, the commissions must come to grips with other problems which transcend regional lines. They need a mechanism which will permit them to act in unison on such problems.

The Federation described in the following Articles of Agreement provides, we believe, that mechanism. It deserves our strong support. Its success is important to higher education.

NORMAN BURNS
*Editor*

# ARTICLES OF AGREEMENT OF THE FEDERATION OF REGIONAL ACCREDITING COMMISSIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION

## I

The commissions on institutions of higher education of the Middle States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, the New England Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, the Northwest Association of Secondary and Higher Schools, the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools, and the Western Association of Schools and Colleges create hereby the Federation of Regional Accrediting Commissions of Higher Education to serve their common interests in the manner mentioned in these Articles of Agreement and in such other ways as they may from time to time jointly determine.

## II

As the agent of the constituent commissions, the Federation codifies and develops general principles and procedures for institutional evaluation and accreditation and generally for strengthening and increasing the effectiveness of higher education in appropriate ways. The Federation promotes the exchange of information, experience, and personnel among the constituent commissions, and provides means of communication and cooperation among them. It may establish committees and undertake projects in the common interest, make studies and seek funds to support them, relate itself to other agencies in the interest of the commissions and their member institutions, and speak for the constituent commissions on matters of general agreement.

## III

Each constituent commission retains responsibility for the evaluation and accrediting of particular institutions within its own area and for consultation and other related services, unless two or more commissions agree to work together. The Federation's general aim is to establish a national consensus for regional application.

## IV

The legislative agency of the Federation is a Federation Council representing the constituent commissions, which meets at least annually at the call of the executive committee. The Council comprises three delegates from each commission, two of whom are chosen by the commission for staggered three-year terms, while the third is, *ex officio*, that commission's executive officer. Commissions may send as many observers to meetings of the Council as they please, who may participate in its proceedings.

The commissions may send alternates to meetings of the Council or its committees, who shall fully represent the commission concerned in the absence of regular delegates. Vacancies in unexpired terms shall be filled by the commission concerned.

Each commission has one vote in the Council. Five affirmative votes are necessary for action. One or more official delegates from five commissions constitute a quorum.

The Council elects its officers biennially from among its own members. They thereupon become the officers of the Federation. They include a chairman, a vice chairman, and an executive committee member at large, who are chosen from three different commissions, and a secretary-treasurer. Executive officers of the constituent commissions are eligible for office as secretary-treasurer only. Each officer has the customary duties of his station. Officers are eligible for re-election. The Council fills vacancies in unexpired terms of its officers as they occur.

The Council's executive committee consists of its four officers. Its duties include planning for the Federation and such other responsibilities as the Council assigns it.

V

The chairman is the Federation's principal spokesman. The secretary-treasurer is its executive officer, who keeps its records, has a file of all its significant correspondence, manages its finances, conducts its official correspondence, issues its documents, and has such other duties as the Council assigns him.

VI

The Council is responsible for the finances of the Federation, fixes dues or assessments upon the constituent commissions, and is empowered to seek funds from other sources.

Unless other funds are provided, travel and accommodation costs for meetings of the Council are pooled for the Council's 18 members (3 from each constituent) and divided evenly among the six commissions, and costs of the executive committee meetings are divided equally among the constituent commissions.

VII

Amendments to the Articles of Agreement may be proposed by the Council or by any constituent commission. They become effective upon ratification by five affirmative votes in the Council.

*Adopted March 2, 1964.*

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## NEW TITLE ON JAPAN IN FOREIGN RELATIONS SERIES

*Japan—Ally in the Far East*, authored by Dr. Robert A. Scalapino, Chairman of the Department of Political Science, University of California, Berkeley, is the most recent title in the NCA Foreign Relations Series. (See Publications of the North Central Association, page 309 for complete list.)

A study in contrasts, this latest publication deals with the paradoxes and contradictions in Japan; the similarities and ties to the United States; the severe hardships imposed by her geography and the way in which Japan has overcome them; and the complex political and economic issues confronting the Japanese policymakers. The contents are designed to help the reader intelligently interpret United States policy *vis a vis* Japan.

The NCA Foreign Relations Project continues to sponsor or co-sponsor conferences and residential seminars.

Recent meetings included a two-day conference on the topic, "The Improvement of International Understanding," held at Michigan State University in cooperation with the University's Institute for International Studies; and a one-day Seminar on American Foreign Policy held at Maine Township High School West, Des Plaines, Illinois.

In both instances, political scientists and other social scientists met with teachers and administrators from high schools and colleges to discuss the problems and prospects of improving the teaching of international relations.

# IN MEMORIAM

IT IS WITH DEEP SORROW and a sense of personal loss that we note the death of two devoted workers on behalf of the North Central Association.

H. Pat Wardlaw, Assistant Commissioner of Education for the State of Missouri, died unexpectedly on February 3.

Dennis L. Trueblood, Professor Higher Education and Chairman of Guidance, Southern Illinois University, Carbondale. died February 8, following open heart surgery.

### H. Pat Wardlaw
### 1909-1964

DR. WARDLAW was actively associated with the North Central Association since 1947 when he became a member of the Missouri NCA State Committee. He served on the NCA Commission on Secondary Schools, and for the past three years was a member of the Association's Board of Directors. He gave generously of his time, energies, talents, and friendship.

While Dr. Wardlaw's professional services were primarily to the public schools of Missouri, his influence was felt regionally and nationally through his work with educational organizations, including National Association of Secondary School Principals, National Association of Directors and Supervisors of Secondary Education, and Council of Chief State School Officers.

In 1960, the College of Education of the University of Missouri awarded Dr. Wardlaw a well-earned tribute, the Citation for Distinguished Service. This Citation noted Pat's uncommon attributes as "school administrator with exceptional ability to translate theory into practice; leader in the movement to reclassify and upgrade the public secondary schools of Missouri; vigorous champion of the higher standards of teacher certification in Missouri and the other states of the North Central Association; friend and counselor of a wide circle of co-workers, who is respected for his judgment, integrity, and unfailing helpfulness."

### Dennis L. Trueblood
### 1925-1964

DR. TRUEBLOOD was a 1959–60 Associate of the NCA Leadership Training Project and assisted in the training of later classes. He served the Commission on Colleges and Universities as a member of many examining teams and was particularly helpful in the evaluation of applying institutions.

A member of the staff of Southern Illinois University since 1957, Dr. Trueblood is credited with making a signal contribution to the graduate program, not only through the Department of Guidance, but in his key role in preparation for the North Central Association's recent accreditation study of the institution's doctoral program.

Dr. Trueblood was active in many professional groups, serving as the 1964 President of the American College Personnel Association, and as a member of the Executive Council of the American Guidance Personnel and Guidance Association.

Southern Illinois University President Delyte W. Morris praised Professor Trueblood's keen perception, loyal devotion to principles, and the courageous expenditure of precious energy.

"His concern for mankind overrode his physical frailty, enabling him in his short lifetime to contribute much to social consciousness, to higher education, and specifically to this university," Morris said.

We mourn the passing of these fine men; we shall miss them.

*Requiescant in pace.*

## NCA Staff Member to Be Butler U Vice President

Robert F. Sullivan, Associate Secretary of the NCA Commission on Colleges and Universities, will become Vice President for Academic Affairs, Butler University, Indianapolis, Indiana, on July 1, 1964.

Holder of B.A. and M.A. degrees from St. Bonaventure University, New York and a Ph.D. from the University of Chicago, Dr. Sullivan was Asst. Professor in Philosophy and Director of Student Activities at St. Bonaventure University from 1953 to 1957.

In 1958, Dr. Sullivan joined the NCA staff. With major responsibility for the accrediting, consulting, and training activities of the Commission on Colleges and Universities, he has served as consultant on self-studies to junior colleges; state colleges; and universities developing new doctoral programs.

Research Associate (Assistant Professor) and Lecturer in Education at the University of Chicago since 1959, Dr. Sullivan has conducted a number of seminars on higher education, has served as resource person for many workshops, and has participated in numerous educational conferences.

The thoughtful article, "An Old Chestnut Revisited," which appears in this issue of the Quarterly, reflects Dr. Sullivan's knowledge, experience, and perception of the problems facing higher education today.

## STS Project Publishes New Book

"Problems, Practices, Procedures: Experiences of 62 Project Schools" is the title of the latest publication of the NCA Project on Guidance and Motivation of Superior and Talented Secondary School Students (STS Project).

In this 99-page book, Clyde Vroman, Frank S. Endicott, and J. Fred Murphy, members of the Project Committee, summarize the reports from 62 of the original pilot schools on the major problems they encountered and the most successful practices and procedures they employed in building an effective program for their superior and talented students. The publication also includes specific recommendations by the committee.

The book is available ($1.25 per copy) from STS Project, North Central Association, 5454 South Shore Drive, Chicago, Illinois 60615.

## Reports of Fraternal Delegates to Other Associations

Six regional accrediting agencies, including the North Central Association, work toward the improvement of education in the United States.

While the programs and procedures of the associations may differ slightly, the goals are similar, and there has been active cooperation on a number of projects. For example, the NCA-STS Project initiated by the North Central Association in 1958 became an inter-regional project in 1960. Materials issued by the NCA Foreign Relations Project are utilized by schools throughout the country.

Recently as noted in the editorial on page 273, the Federation of Regional Accrediting Commissions of Higher Education was organized.

A continuing channel of communication among the regional associations has been the exchange of fraternal delegates at the various annual meetings.

During the past year, members of the North Central Board of Directors have represented the Association at meetings of the other associations. The Quarterly herewith presents their reports of the highlights of these conferences.

### *New England Association*

It was my pleasure to serve as NCA delegate to the New England Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools in

Boston, on December 5–7. My host for the meeting was Past President Bertram H. Holland, Headmaster, Brookline High School, Brookline, Massachusetts. Mr. Holland was most gracious in keeping me informed about all phases of their meetings. Mr. Holland and I had previously met as he had served as a delegate to the NCA 1963 Annual Meeting. Within ten minutes after my arrival, I was invited to attend an Executive Board meeting.

The New England Association was the last of the associations to assume the obligation of accrediting secondary schools and higher educational institutions. They have made a great deal of progress and their reports would indicate that many of the recommendations made by their evaluation teams are being carried out by the schools.

I sensed a great enthusiasm for the Association, and there was an increase of approximately two hundred members in attendance. They expressed great interest in our Commission on Research and Service, and they are using many of our reports and publications.

On Friday evening, they held a banquet for delegates and their wives at which Dr. John Galbraith, of Harvard University, was the guest speaker.

I came away impressed by their hospitality and with the knowledge that the New England Association is a very dynamic force for educational improvement in the eastern states.

RALPH C. JOHNSON
*NCA President*

### *Middle States Association*

The Middle States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools held its seventy-seventh annual convention in Chalfonte-Haddon Hall on the Board Walk in Atlantic City, New Jersey, Thursday–Saturday, December 5–7, 1963. Convention speakers and fraternal delegates from the North Central, New England, and Southern Associations were guests of the Executive Committee at a luncheon preceding the first general meeting on Thursday afternoon.

Special hosts for Irwin J. Lubbers, N.C.A. delegate and Mrs. Lubbers were President and Mrs. Calvert N. Ellis of Juniata College. At the business session President Ellis was elected Vice-president and Clarence A. Fulmer, Principal, Wilmington High School, Wilmington, Delaware moved up to the Presidency for 1964. Elwood C. Kastner, Dean of Financial Aid, New York University and Oliver W. Melchior, Superintendent of Schools, Garden City, N.Y. were re-elected Secretary and Treasurer respectively.

In his presidential report Edward K. Cratsley, Vice-president of Swarthmore College indicated that the Association with 1400 member institutions had grown too big for the "voluntary administration" now carrying on its business. He recommended moving the offices of the Commissions to a central office and the employment of a staff for general office work. The Chairman of the Commission on Secondary Schools, Albert I. Oliver, Associate Professor of Education, University of Pennsylvania reported that the Commission office had during the year been moved off the campus of the University of Pennsylvania into a commercial office building and that it had a staff of four full time secretaries.

The second half of the Thursday afternoon business session was devoted to a public meeting of the Commission on Institutions of Higher Education to receive evaluation team reports on Bennet College, Western Maryland College, and the University of Pennsylvania. Synopses of the reports were distributed to the audience. The commissioners discussed freely the implications of the reports and arrived at their final actions with due deliberation. As a device for demonstrating how the Commission operates the procedure was eminently successful. There are obvious reasons why it cannot be adopted as a continuing policy particularly when it involves evaluation reports that are more severe in criticism of the institutions examined.

The Thursday evening program con-

sisted of a panel discussion on the topic "Admission Data and College Policy." Representatives from a Catholic high school, a state department of education, a liberal arts college, a university and the Director of Developmental Programs of the Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey made initial presentations. This was followed by a spirited discussion among the panel members and finally the audience was invited to participate. The meeting was a fruitful one.

At the Friday morning session President James A. Perkins of Cornell University gave the keynote address on the topic "Education and the Freedom of the Mind." It was incisive, provocative and brilliant. Immediately after the address the delegates retired to twenty-three designated section groups for discussion under appointed leaders.

Friday afternoon and Saturday morning were alloted to meetings of affiliated Associations which is a characteristic of the Middle States Associations organization. These include Registrars, Student Advisors, Science Teachers, Modern Language Teachers, Methodist Institutions of the Middle States, Regional Units of the National Catholic Educational Association and the Junior College Council of the area.

The impression gleaned by a fraternal delegate is one of a dynamic association grappling with emerging problems and coming to an awareness of the need for reorganization and expanded full time personnel and more effective communication.

IRWIN J. LUBBERS
*NCA Past President*

### *The Southern Association*

The annual convention of the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools was held in the Hotel Peabody in Memphis on December 1–5, 1963. I was pleased to carry the greetings of NCA to this fine organization.

Many of the problems and concerns we find in our region are shared by the Southern Association, and were also mentioned by the New England and Middle States delegates who attended. All are striving to become more effective in making the association and the accrediting process contribute to better education. This leads to such considerations as the relative value of specific standards and other evaluative means in assessing and promoting quality.

At the two year college level the Southern Association has a much higher percentage of membership than the North Central. In fact, the meeting of the Southern Association of Junior Colleges is held with that of the Association of Colleges and Schools. Two year colleges are accredited under separate standards, however, and these appear much more detailed and specific than we would desire in our region.

The Southern Association was once, like our own, comprised of colleges and secondary schools. Now, as its name implies, it admits elementary schools to accreditation and membership. I was able to form no judgment on the desirability of this practice, but have the impression that there is greater variability in the quality of elementary schools in the Southern region than in the North Central, where the combination of state control and state support tends to produce greater uniformity.

The Southern Association, even more than our own, is disturbed by the fact that it is outgrowing available meeting places. Many delegates found it impossible to get into the general sessions, even as standees. Meetings rotate among cities able and willing to accommodate them. I overheard satisfaction expressed that major New Orleans hotels have recently been desegregated, making that city another desirable site.

As expected, there was no evidence of anything but a professional attitude toward the race problems which have received recent publicity. The Association opposes political interference in educational matters, but evaluates its members and applicants strictly on their quality as educational institutions.

The Association, in all its general and group meetings, gives an impression of vigor, a sense of direction, and a sincere striving to make its influence felt for continued improvement in education throughout the region.

WILLIAM N. ATKINSON
*Member, NCA Board of Directors*

### *The Northwest Association*

The usual warm, western hospitality was everywhere apparent at the annual meeting of the Northwest Association of Secondary and Higher Schools in Reno, Nevada. The sessions were well attended in spite of the temptation on every hand to match wits (or whatever it is you match) with tinkling machines calculated to foster the redistribution of wealth. Contrary to any wild rumors, I did not break the bank!

Professional accreditation and its relation to regional accreditation broadened the typical concerns aired at these meetings, with special attention to teacher education. Educational challenges in a changing world were discussed in several formal sessions, as well as around tables and over coffee. The choice of speakers added an interesting note of controversy that tended to enliven things a bit. Purposes, organization, problems, and procedures of accreditation received the customary attention typical of gatherings where educators attempt to serve their schools better through the organization to which they belong. Fred L. Stetson continues to serve the Northwest Association with distinction.

STEPHEN A. ROMINE
*NCA President 1960–61*

### *Western College Association*

The Western College Association held its 1964 Annual Meeting at Chico State College, Chico, California, on March 12–13, 1964. The theme of the meeting was "Instititional Self-Study, the Key to Orderly Change in Higher Education."

About 300 representatives from senior colleges and universites located in California, Hawaii, and Guam attended the two-day meeting.

Dr. Paul L. Dressel, Director of Institutional Research, Michigan State University, gave two major addresses. The first dealt with "The Anticipation of Change—What Should be Included in a Program of Institutional Research," and the second address was entitled "A Basis for Planning for Change—The Contribution of Institutional Studies Toward a National Program of Decision Making and Forward Planning in Higher Education."

Discussion groups were organized around the following five topics: Year-Round Academic Program; Student Characteristics and Culture; The College and Its Public; In-Service Staff Development; and Curriculum Development and the Instructional Program.

The Western College Association is a constituent member of the Western College Association of Schools and Colleges, whose major purpose is the accreditation of secondary schools, junior colleges, colleges, and universities. It was very revealing to note how similar the problems and action programs in that Association are to those in the North Central Association. Our two associations have much to learn from each other, and one of the most effective ways of keeping communications open is through the exchange of fraternal delegates at our annual meetings.

CLYDE VROMAN
*NCA Vice President*

## 70TH ANNUAL MEETING DATES SET

The North Central Association will celebrate its 70th birthday at the 1965 Annual Meeting, March 29 to April 1, at the Palmer House in Chicago.

The Advisory Committee on 1965 Annual Meeting Program will meet May 14–15 to make preliminary plans for this milestone in the long history of the Association.

Members of this committee include the President, Vice President, Past President, Treasurer, and Secretary of the Association, as well as the Chairman and

Secretary of each of the three Commissions.

## RECENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

*The Nongraded High School.* By B. Frank Brown. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1963, 223 pages, $5.95. This book sets forth in detail the organizational plan and curriculum of a nongraded high school, Melbourne, Florida, which the author—the school's principal—describes as an "average high school of 1200 students, run on a budget well below the average, with ordinary teachers paid an ordinary salary." The new program, which has been in operation since 1958, incorporates many experimental changes designed to permit students to advance in accordance with their individual abilities and to pursue depth learning through independent study.

*The Undergraduate Curriculum in Higher Education.* By Paul L. Dressel. New York: The Center For Applied Research in Education, 70 Fifth Ave., 1964, 110 pages. Copies are available to subscribers to the Library of Education at $3.50. This monograph by the well-known Director of Institutional Research, Michigan State University, furnishes a guide for curriculum revision which combines theoretical principles and practical suggestions. For the many faculties engaged in the realignment of undergraduate education this volume will be of inestimable value.

*Communism in Theory and Practice.* By Howard D. Mehlinger. San Francisco: Chandler Publishing Company, 1964, 274 pages; paper, $2.76; cloth, $4.00. This book of readings for high school students includes chapters on Communist theory, on its practice in the USSR, on the implications of international communism, on Communist activities in the United States, and on the nature of the challenge posed by communism today. The contents can be used as a textbook for a full-semester course on communism, as a supplementary readings book, or as reference material. The end-of-chapter questions and activities should prove helpful to teachers and students.

*Access to Higher Education, Volume 1.* By Frank Bowles. New York: International Documents Service, Columbia University Press, 1963, 212 pages. This report on the first major project carried out under the Joint Unesco-IAU Research Programme in Higher Education recognizes that the university is a universal institution, that there is a growing need throughout the world for the type of persons universities have been designed to produce, and that in all countries there are ever-increasing numbers of persons seeking entrance to universities. The book deals with problems of admission, the admissions process, the forces of change, and the world admissions scene.

*Management Surveys For Schools: Their Uses and Abuses.* By a Committee of the American Association of School Administrators. Washington, D. C.: 1964, 68 pages, paper, $2.00 single copy, quantity discounts. This report is designed to furnish a background against which sound decisions can be made whether and under what conditions a management survey may be helpful in a particular school district. The committee gives valuable information on where to get assistance, how to select and work with the consultant, and how to use a survey report. Included also are sample specification for a study, specimen contract, areas in which consultants offer help, and some listings of consultants.

*College and Character.* Edited by Nevitt Sanford. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1964, 308 pages, $4.95. In this much briefer and somewhat modified version of *The American College:* (John Wiley and Sons, January, 1962), 28 of the original 30 authors take a critical look at the academic environment—its composition, interactions, and influence. In the opening section on "The Study of Higher Education," the editor discusses the relationship between higher education and society; in the concluding chapter, written expressly for this volume, he summarizes some of the main themes of *The American College* and presents some proposals for change and experimentation in higher education. Professor Sanford expresses the hope that this book will meet the needs of "many professional people whose work requires that they know something about students and the college environment, but who do not need the detailed and often specialized information offered in *The American College.*"

*Team Teaching—Bold New Venture.* Edited by David W. Beggs, III. Indianapolis: Unified College Press, Inc., 1964, 192 pages, $4.95. Twelve people of differing professional roles present an analysis of team teaching, a significant innovation in education. This book is dedicated to J. Loyd Trump, a pioneer advocate of team teaching, and introduced by Harold Spears who has had extensive experiences with one of the forerunners of team teaching, the core curriculum. Designed for educators at all levels, college students, members of school boards, and interested laymen, the book defines team teaching and outlines the ways in which it can be introduced into the program of elementary, junior high, and secondary schools.

*The Two Cultures: and A Second Look.* By C. P. Snow. A Mentor Book reprint of Cambridge University Press original release. New York: The New American Library of World Literature, Inc., 1964, 92 pages, paper, $.60. In his famous essay, "The Two Cultures," the author decries the lack of communication between literary intellectuals and scientists and warns of the danger in having these two groups working at apparent cross-

purposes. "A Second Look" considers the problem and discusses ways of solving it.

*The Excitement of Science.* By John Rader Platt. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1962, 174 pages, paper, $1.50. In this stimulating and provocative book, Professor Platt examines in depth the relations between science and technology and the aims of society, and defends the "morality of the pure pursuit of objective truth." While the author does not minimize the danger in the possible application or misapplication of increased knowledge, he expresses optimism that the effect of scientific discovery will expand the world's social objective and promote universal understanding.

*The College and World Affairs.* A committee report. New York: Education and World Affairs, 522 Fifth Avenue, 1964, 74 pages, paper, copy available upon request. Ten prominent educators, in their report on a special 18-month study, charge that U. S. colleges are failing in their responsibility to prepare Americans for world leadership. Institutions of higher education, according to the report, have failed the purposes of liberal education "by emasculating or cheapening the curriculum, or by permitting the course structure and the college community itself to become weedy with modes of living and learning antithetical to liberality of mind and spirit." Education and World Affairs, the organization which sponsored this study, is undertaking a four-year program to implement the recommendations contained in this report.

*Staff Welfare Practices in the Public Schools.* By Leslie W. Kindred and Prince B. Woodward. New York: The Center For Applied Research in Education, 70 Fifth Avenue, 1964, 117 pages. Copies are available to subscribers to the Library of Education at $3.50. Directed to boards of education and superintendents, this book presents an analysis of personnel policies of a wide sample of school systems in this country. It covers such topics as health and recreation, working conditions and environment, leaves of absence, insurance, legal protection, and other benefits.

*Higher Education and the Demand for Scientific Manpower in the United States.* Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), National Review of U. S. Policies for Science and Education, prepared under the Country Review Program of the Committee for Scientific and Technical Personnel. This 101-page report presents the findings of examiners directed to consider the future of science and technology in America in terms of economic supply and demand. Also included is a summary of the confrontation meeting involving the survey of experts, the U. S. delegation, and the member nation representatives. Single copies of this report are available on request from the Publications Office of the National Science Foundation.

*Fire-Bell in the Night: The Crisis in Civil Rights.* By Oscar Handlin. Boston: Atlantic-Little, Brown and Company, 1964, 110 pages, $3.50. The author of the Pulitzer Prize-winning *The Uprooted* takes stock of one of the crucial problems of our time. He traces developments since the 1954 Supreme Court decision, documents the "procrastination of a crucial decade," and stresses that "ten years of frustration have confused both the objectives and the tactics of the civil rights struggle." Professor Handlin analyzes the growing antagonism between the militant Negroes and recalcitrant whites. He eloquently pleads that both races enlist sincere, calm, rational leadership to provide, without further delay, for equality of opportunity for the Negro in education, employment, and urban life. "With regard to the central objective," he writes, "the time for moderation has passed. More than ever, therefore, it is essential to be prudent in the choice of means, to take care lest the struggle consume the prize and leave only the wreckage of democracy for the victors."

ROBERT P. ASHLEY,* *Ripon College*
*Ripon, Wisconsin*

# Let No Such Man Be Trusted: Advice on Hiring Faculty[1]

HIRING A FACULTY is a risky business. After reading a set of probably biased credentials, making a few phone calls to offset the bias, inviting the candidate to the campus for an interview, introducing him to the star performers on the staff, turning him over to the department chairman with a silent prayer that he won't tell the truth about the administration, and presiding over the final arbitration, the hiring officer (called "you" hereafter) must decide whether the institution should make an offer. Probably not much can be done to reduce the risk of the operation. But, in reading credentials and conducting interviews, you can at least be wary of certain dangerous types of applicants. Some of the most common follow.

1. *The rolling stone:* After much time on the academic treadmill, he has probably gathered nothing but moss. Over the years he has held a series of short-term positions, each no better than the one before it. Your institution may be his last desperate chance for a really good position; but, if he comes, he probably won't stay long, nor will you want him to.

2. *The diddler:* He holds a master's degree of somewhat ancient vintage and perhaps accomplished a year of residence toward a doctorate but, after a few sporadic, half-hearted attempts to "go back," has given up the ghost. He will point out that Howard Mumford Jones doesn't have a Ph.D., quote Jacques Barzun on the inanities of the American doctoral mill, scornfully cite the titles of silly theses, and loftily tell you that he just couldn't waste his time on the kind of scholarship the graduate schools expect of their doctoral candidates. In actuality, his failure is probably due to a lack of qualities you want on your staff: ambition, perseverance, the faculty of getting along with people, and the ability to set one's sights on a goal and then get there. Obviously, the Ph.D. does not make the man and plenty of dullards hold doctorates, but nonetheless the outstanding teachers and scholars on most campuses have succeeded in getting the top degree in their field or, if not, have compensated with creative and imaginative achievements of another sort.

3. *The haggler:* After originally agreeing to a certain set of terms, he will embark on a campaign to better the offer. He will begin by demanding more salary. If this fails, then he will insist that you pay his full moving expenses rather than the half previously agreed upon or that you waive the usual waiting period for TIAA or that you absorb his agency fee or that you send him the price of tickets for himself and his family on the first-class jet he would like to take to the campus in the fall. This candidate will never be satisfied; if he is hired, every contract renewal will be the occasion for a series of unpleasant wrangles.

4. *The security seeker:* Overly concerned about tenure, he will not be content with a one-year contract, but will demand an initial appointment with a two-year or three-year guarantee. You will be wise to conclude that, if he had anything to offer your institution, he would gladly trust his ability to demon-

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[1] Expanded from informal remarks made at the Conference of Academic Deans, held in August, 1963, at the Oklahoma State University of Agriculture and Applied Science, Stillwater, Oklahoma.

strate this to you and thus earn the renewal of his one-year contract.

5. *The young man with a list:* If the list contains the right questions, well and good. If not, beware, especially if you suspect the list to have been prepared by the applicant's wife. Such an applicant may be more interested in the contents of the supermarket than of the library or in the bridge-playing ability of his future colleagues than of their scholarly competence. Under the expert tutelage of his wife, he may develop into the haggler or the security seeker or both.

6. *The young man on the make:* He comes with impressive credentials. After studying in this country on a Woodrow Wilson or a Danforth, he has gone abroad under a Fulbright. He really is not interested in your institution, but he is marooned in Europe and needs a job to get back into the academic marketplace where, as soon as possible, he will leave you to accept the position he really wants in the kind of institution he really prefers. But he may be worth the risk.

7. *The paranoid:* This is frequently a displaced person or refugee who brings with him bitter memories of persecution in his native land and who tends to view opposition as an extension of this persecution. Anyone who disagrees with him, he feels, must belong to a sinister cabal or a deep-dyed conspiracy—there is no such thing as honest difference of opinion or argument by principle.

8. *The bloomer girl:* In her bristling letter of application, she points out that she has studied the catalog very carefully, has computed that only 1.75% of the faculty are women, and demands an explanation. Whenever she doesn't get what she wants or whenever any one differs with her, it is because "I am a woman"—there can never be any other reason. There is a chip on her shoulder and she dares any male, administrator or faculty member, to knock it off.

There are other dangerous types, such of the applicant with no recent recommendations, the applicant with unexplained gaps in his employment record, and the applicant whose references are all colleagues and friends, never presidents and deans (who have no friends). Together with the eight types mentioned in greater detail they constitute a catalog of least wanted persons.

*Let no such man be trusted.*

ROBERT F. SULLIVAN,* *North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, Chicago, Illinois*

# An Old Chestnut Revisited[1]

ON READING AN EARLY ISSUE of the *North Central Association Procedures*, the forerunner of the *Quarterly*, I was amazed to find an article entitled "What is a College?" I feel pretty much like the adolescent who ran away from home at 16 because he thought his father ignorant of the problems of growing up and was surprised to discover, on returning at 21, how much his father had learned in the interim.

After six years' experience with the North Central Association, I have begun to understand that the most urgent question facing colleges today is still the old chestnut: What is a College?

Any answer to the question is doomed to failure because there are as many answers as there are colleges. This is as it should be, for each faculty has the right and the duty to define what its particular college shall be. Moreover, there is no group which has the authority to define what all the colleges should be like.

## CLASSICAL AND ROMANTIC STRAINS

It is possible, however, to identify two distinct strains in the American college—the classical and the romantic. The classical, as I see it, strives to create a universe of knowledge through what we have come to call disciplines, such as history, psychology, economics, and mathematics. For example, in the discipline of history, the student might begin with a course in World Civilization, then take Modern European History, history of the United States, and some study of the Far East. The organization and sequence of courses are determined on the basis of relationships which professors see. Majoring in any discipline leads to the development of greater knowledge and skills in the discipline. The assumption that this will enrich the student personally is implicit.

Our disciplines are wonderful creations but they are not real. They are not the way we discover facts and relationships among facts. They belong to the ordering of knowledge; they are not of the order of discovery. Actually, reality does not exist the way we portray it in our disciplines. History does not exist as depicted in textbooks; neither does economics. A discipline is a world of generalization. Reality is a world of specifics.

The romantic strain, on the other hand, seeks to create a universe within the student. It is more concerned with what interests and concerns him. It tries to move him from his own concerns into the larger world. It views knowledge as answers to questions about real situations. These answers raise further questions to be answered, *ad infinitum*. It does not, as in the classical strain, structure the universe into a prescribed pattern neatly carved and ready to be consumed.

In the college of today, the choice is not between the classical or the romantic strain. The college must have both. But how do we put these two strains together? The college is not only a place where the student is confronted by the expectations of the scholar, the state, industry, the fine arts, and others, but it is also a place where the student confronts himself and learns to impress his expectations on the current economic, political, and social life.

The student is trying to develop both as an individual and as a man in the

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[1] Adapted from address given at Wartburg College, Waverly, Iowa, February 24, 1964.

world. But the problem with growing up is that it does not happen all of a piece. Society has a legitimate claim that its members have at least a cognizance of its intellectual traditions: that they develop skills which are useful; and that they have a commitment to human values of some type. On the other hand, the young adult must test his own strengths and weaknesses to learn what he can reasonably expect of himself and reasonably demand of others.

So in the liberal tradition the problem remains: How does a faculty make a student aware of his own needs and the needs of society so that he grows at the same time into a man and a citizen? It seems that as educators we have trapped ourselves by selecting as our main concern the transmission of knowledge and forgetting the development of the individual. The present difficulties in education result from over-accenting the educational needs of society and neglecting, to a large extent, the individual's purposes.

An important problem facing every college faculty is how to create a balance between the social and the individual purposes that shall characterize their college. The faculty must specify precisely what the social purposes are, what minimum levels of subject matter knowledge and skills are acceptable. At the same time, in the interests of the individual, they must allow him to maximize the gifts within himself. Every faculty must confront itself with these sets of questions:

1. What are the basic areas of knowledge that all students must encounter? What is the minimum knowledge that they should obtain during their residence in college. How are these areas of knowledge related to the larger society which the students will one day enter?

2. What is the nature of the individual student? What are his specific drives and interests? How can these drives, interests, and concerns be channelled so that the student will be compelled to follow questions to their logical conclusions?

3. And, finally, there is the problem of balance. How should the curriculum be balanced so that the needs of the individual and the needs of society are met?

The first set of questions dealing with the social purposes of a college has been discussed almost solely by speakers at educational conferences. Aside from a few books little scholarly publication has appeared. However, two recent volumes, Clark Kerr's *The Uses of the University* and John W. Gardner's *Self Renewal*, indicate a renewed concern for the relation of the college to the larger society. Barzun's recent plaint on the decline of the liberal arts college underscores the emergent need for a redefinition of the liberal arts college as a social force.

The questions confronting colleges today are many, and they have an immediate urgency. How shall the colleges accommodate a larger number of students and still retain the warmth of the small college? Shall the colleges attempt to encompass the expanding universe of knowledge or attempt to find means to interpret it? How can colleges serve all people—the student, the farmer, the industrial worker, the large corporation, our own state and nation? How shall colleges aid students to to use and not be dominated by the many benefits of technology? How shall our students be taught to look ahead and purposely choose their direction rather than discover the direction after they have drifted through it? How can our young people be fired with an intense desire to fashion our communities and our nation in that fullness of freedom which to our forefathers was a dream? How can we, as faculty members, rekindle in ourselves the spirit of the early immigrants who dared to leave their old and familiar patterns and build new and strange ways of life? For us it is not a task of clearing forests or hauling wagons through deserts and over mountains. For us it is a task of reviewing old and comfortable assumptions and abandoning them where they limit the opportunities for anyone. The new world of today's immigrant is essentially a world of ideas which need to be translated into new social institutions, new cultural forms, and broadened personal relationships, all flowing from deepened experiences of what it is to be human.

The second group of questions dealing with the student as an individual has been discussed in a larger number of volumes than have the educational needs of a society. However, we still have not developed anything like a judo for teaching and learning. Because we do not know how to use the momentum or even the inertia of the student to throw him deeper into his own concerns, *we are plagued with students who reject our concerns and never develop their own.* The problem of good teaching and good learning remains a mystery in spite of our many studies. Our schools do not make the outstanding teacher. He is discovered in retrospect and celebrated in a book.

We have especially failed in showing our students why we refer to history, economics, and other subject areas as disciplines. Too often our students and we ourselves understand our disciplines as archaic sets of answers to equally archaic questions. A discipline should not refer to a set of answers but rather to the force of a question. Our students do not always understand the force with which a question captures the energies of the scholar and literally drives him in search of an answer. They do not understand that by "discipline" we are referring to a constraint which controls, molds, and mobilizes the energies of the scholar. They have rarely, if ever, felt the terrible emptiness of an unanswered question.

In our day, every man needs the habits of the scholar—the questioning of assumptions; the tentative acceptance of conclusions; the tolerance of ambiguity in the solution of practical problems; the understanding that the development of truth is a painful, laborious, and continuous process, and that one must follow where it leads regardless of the consequences.

For many faculties the answers to the first two sets of questions consume so much time and energy that the third set of questions are never reached.

As mentioned earlier, the classical strain in our colleges, over-accenting society's needs, tends to force upon the student a whole set of ready-made values which preclude his recognition that he has something of unique value to contribute. This over-emphasis positions the ideal world in the past rather than in the future. The student is cast in a model of the past on the assumption that the good life is lived in accordance with this model. On the other hand, the romantic strain in our colleges centers on the individual to the point where he becomes overly self-conscious in social relations; where he spends too much time searching for human problems to be solved instead of seeking to deepen his own personal relationships; where he feels a commitment to go forth and change the world without an adequate understanding of it; where he has a tendency to forget that not by the arts and philosophy alone "doth a man live."

Both of these strains are incomplete answers to the problem of college balance. It is not a question of the classical or the romantic. One does not have to be either an organization man or a beatnik. The real goal is to become human, without all these labels. This appears to be the most important challenge facing our colleges.

## "Humanness"—The Essential Concern

But what does it mean to become human? This is essentially the basic problem confronting every faculty. We know well enough that there is no single answer, nor is there a single way of becoming human. We also know that "humanness" is not captured by a single blend of personal qualities. Whether autocrat or democrat, reserved or friendly, concise or rambling, great scholars and great teachers share one characteristic—they are human.

How does a faculty develop "humanness?" Partially, it is developed in continuing discussions, confrontations, and arguments in which one faculty member allows another to be a little more himself. And it is developed in students by including them in faculty discussions and allowing them to become a little more themselves. Just as in the family, when a child feels he can be himself, it means that the parents are able to accept this because they can accept themselves for what they

are; so on a campus, when the student feels he can be himself, this means that the faculty are able to accept him and to accept themselves for what they are.

In short, the greatest problem confronting our colleges today, whether private or public, is not how large they might become or how close the relationship of student and faculty, not general education versus specialized or professional training, not publication versus teaching, rather, how do faculty and students become more completely human?

Democracy exists where men are led from a deep understanding of their own "humanness" to an understanding of the "humanness" of their neighbor, and democratic institutions are an attempt to embody in concrete form relationships which free us all to be more completely human. The essential purpose of our colleges is to allow the student to discover what it is for him to be human and to understand the "humanness" of others, although different from his own.

What does it mean to be human? To be human is to be not alone—"no man is an island." To be human is to see our development in association with others, not in the sense of sacrificing ourselves for others, but in seeking fulfillment in our relationships with others. We follow our own drives, likes, and dislikes. So does the other person. Where these are similar, there is sharing; where these are different, there is understanding. The nub of the question of being human is to find more and more areas of sharing, going from mere tolerance of differences to the creative sharing of differences. The problem is how to come together and how not to limit the coming together. To be human is the process of sharing one's thoughts and attitudes with other people as completely as possible. It is never finished.

The present press for integration is a very good example. I may believe the speed with which the color barrier is being broken down is acceptable. The Negro personally confronted with the problem may feel that the tempo is too slow. To react by saying that he has the right to his opinions and I have the right to mine is not to be human. The only right that we both have is finding a way in which we can share our attitudes. In thinking about integration I realize that any differences in wealth, family name, or position are accidental. The fact that his forefathers were stolen from their native land and that mine were forced out for economic or religious reasons means that we are more like one another than we are different. The fact that my skin also turns brown in the sun and his is already darkened is another indication of our similarity.

The basic question then is: How can we accept one another in spite of the gossip and old wives' tales of the past? The function of the college is not to discover new types of relationships between the Negro and myself because this implies we are different. The college must remove barriers to the normal types of human relationships, so that we may more fully share ourselves with each other. Further, the college must help the student to accept *all* of the consequences of the recognition of our common "humanness." It must not allow some consequences to be accepted and some to be rejected.

In answering the third set of questions, the faculty of a college needs to be concerned less with admission requirements than with the development of a set of "exit" requirements for the students. These should reflect what the faculty feels are the important questions for our society. A student should be able to discuss these questions, know the positions others have taken, and support his own position. At the same time the exit requirements should demand that the student understand what *he* is; which questions concern *him;* what skills he has in handling these questions; and how he will apply all his learning to his future life, both personal and professional.

Facing us today is not the balance between public and private education nor the relative merits of private and public education. The differences are irrelevant. *All colleges* share the responsibility for the development of our society—for a redefinition of liberal education. We shall be free when we become more human.

GORDON CAWELTI,* *North Central Association of Colleges and Universities, Chicago, Illinois*

# Science Programs in Dependents' High Schools

THE NCA has been accrediting overseas dependents' high schools since 1947 when representatives of the military departments came to the Secondary Commission requesting this service. Under an agreement with other regional associations which accredit private overseas schools around the world, the NCA has assumed the responsibility for dependents' schools. These overseas schools follow the same reporting procedures as stateside member schools, and must meet the same criteria in order to remain fully accredited. In addition, each school is currently being visited every two years by representatives of the Secondary Commission. During the past few years there has been considerable interest in various phases of the instructional program, but little descriptive data has been available to permit judgments or comparisons with stateside programs. This report reviews selected aspects of the science instructional program in 57 of the 64 dependents' high schools accredited by the NCA, and draws some implications for future development.

This system of high schools enrolls approximately 31,000 students in 21 foreign countries, and last year 3,495 students graduated from accredited dependents' schools. Some 1,700 fully qualified teachers are currently employed with all science teachers required to have a minimum of 18 semester hours in the field of science and at least 10 semester hours in each subject to which they are assigned.

Data from 40 of the schools was systematically collected by eight NCA representatives who visited the schools in October, 1963, with the remainder coming through correspondence with the school's principal. Prior to their departure, agreement was reached on certain judgmental aspects of the information visitors were requested to obtain from science teachers or department heads. Finally, reactions to the science programs in 40 schools visited were assessed through specially developed instruments administered to a stratified sample[1] of 460 students.

## OFFERINGS AND REQUIREMENTS

Except for a few small schools which were alternating offerings, biology, chemistry, and physics were being taught in the upper three grades; biology was being taught to highly motivated freshmen in some schools. General science was the most common offering at the ninth grade level (80% of the 57 schools), with physical science the next most common (30%); a few schools offered both of these sciences. Seven schools offered an applied science course somewhere in grades nine to twelve, one offered earth science, and one offered life science. Seven schools offered an advanced science course for seniors, usually in the area of biological science.

Only 37 per cent of the students whose opinions were sampled said their school offered all the subjects they would like to take. Of the 280 students who said they would like other courses, 21 per cent of them cited advanced science as at least

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[1] Twelve students from each school, usually upperclass boys and girls representing different ability levels and degrees of involvement in the extra-classroom activities program, and who had been in the school a year or more.

one of the areas in which they would like further work.

Thirty-three of these dependents' schools, or 59% currently require two years of science for graduation. This compares very favorably with a national sampling of graduation requirements of all public high schools in 1958, in which only 34 per cent of the schools with enrollments from 200–499 required as much as two years of science[2] (Note: The median size of the dependents' schools is currently 352). Despite this apparently strong endorsement of science, there was some evidence to suggest that upper classmen were not electing science courses, particularly physics, to the extent that might be expected; enrollments in physics were obtained but not recorded here because often students from more than one grade were enrolled in the class and thus it was not possible to compare with the 4.4 per cent national enrollment figure for physics. However, in several instances NCA teams observed that enrollments were quite small in physics despite the fact that alternative electives in the humanities were quite limited.

## Course Content

In an external survey such as this, it would be difficult to compile a topical description of course content. Because many teachers reported heavy reliance on a single textbook, however, some notion as to the content can be derived by perusing textbooks in use. The following are the three textbooks most frequently used in each of five courses:

| *Textbooks* | *Author* | *Percent of Schools Using* | |
|---|---|---|---|
| GENERAL SCIENCE | | | |
| *Science Problems III* | —Beauchamp *et al.* | 1957 | 43% |
| *You and Science* | —Brandwein *et al.* | 1960 | 26% |
| *You and Science* | —Brandwein *et al.* | 1955 | 12% |
| PHYSICAL SCIENCE | | | |
| *Modern Physical Science* | —Brooks *et al.* | 1962 | 40% |
| *Modern Physical Science* | —Brooks *et al.* | 1957 | 40% |
| *General Physical Science* | —Mallinson *et al.* | 1961 | 17% |
| BIOLOGY | | | |
| *Modern Biology* | —Moon, Otto, Towle | 1960 | 63% |
| (13 percent used the 1957 edition and 10 percent used the 1963 edition) | | | |
| CHEMISTRY | | | |
| *Chemistry and You* | —Bradbury | 1957 | 40% |
| *Modern Chemistry* | —Dull, Metcalf, Williams | 1958 | 26% |
| *Modern Chemistry* | —Dull, Metcalf, Williams | 1962 | 20% |
| PHYSICS | | | |
| *Physics* | P.S.S.C. | 1960 | 33% |
| *Modern Physics* | —Dull, Metcalf, Williams | 1960 | 27% |
| *Physics A Modern Approach* | —Elliot, Wilcox | 1957 | 11% |

One school was using the CHEM Study materials and one was using the curriculum developed by the Chemical Bond Approach Committee. No use of the Biological Science Curriculum Study materials as a primary resource was reported. These new course improvement programs have been developed largely with financial aid from the National Science Foundation, and they have largely held to the premise that science instruction in most schools was out-of-date, and failed to present an understanding of the objectives and methods of scientific inquiry. An idea of the acceptance of these programs can be seen in noting the growth in the number of teachers using the

[2] Greer, Edith S., and Harbeck, Richard M., *What High School Pupils Study*, (U. S. Office of Education, Washington, D. C., 1962) p. 22.

PSSC physics materials. In 1957–58, eight teachers began using the new curriculum as a principal resource whereas in 1963–64 an estimated 4,000 teachers are reported to be using the PSSC physics course materials.[3] Some 2,000 more were using the materials on a supplementary basis.

Another method of handling this information about textbooks in use would be to determine how many of them were outdated, e.g., more than ten years old. This would tend to be misleading, however, in view of the evidence provided by Brownson and Schwab[4] in their study of science textbooks. Discussing newly published titles in each of three sciences under consideration between the years 1959–1962, they report:

> Upon closer scrutiny, though, it turns out that twelve of these (sixteen) 'new' biology textbooks are either revisions of old textbooks or new titles by the authors of older textbooks. The same is true of thirteen of the sixteen 'new' chemistry textbooks and six of the sixteen 'new' physics textbooks.

Their study also evidences a decline from 1915 to 1955 in the number of scientist of prominence involved in textbook writing.

## Laboratories

An effort was made to secure an estimate of the amount of time spent in laboratory work in biology, physics, and chemistry; other classes were excluded because many general science classes were taught on a demonstration basis often because adequate space and equipment was not available for laboratory work. While it is acknowledged that this is at best an estimate, and that time in laboratory sessions varies considerably, teachers in approximately half of the schools, were found to spend two or more periods per week in laboratory work. The remaining half reported one to one and a half periods per week, on an average, are devoted to laboratory activity.

The NCA observers were asked to rate the quality of science laboratories on a three point scale; "above average", "average", or "below average". These ratings were made in terms of having sufficient space and pupil stations to accommodate the classes assigned, having adequate equipment and apparatus, and the extent to which individual students were provided with supplies and small equipment needed. The following is a summary of these ratings:

| *Subject* | *Percent of "Below Average"* | *Percent of "Above Average"* |
|---|---|---|
| Biology | 27% | 30% |
| Chemistry | 14% | 34% |
| Physics | 20% | 6% |

In many instances especially in smaller schools, the same pupil stations were used for each class, but the appropriate supplies and equipment varied. Often the kinds of things needed were expendables or comparatively inexpensive items that may have been ordered but did not reach the school. Such items as balances, meter sticks, wiring, glass tubing, chemicals, specimens, burners, microscopes, etc., were often available but in insufficient quantity. Major items, needed in smaller quantity, were more likely to be needed in physics.[5]

Studies such as Anderson's[6] can be cited showing that pupil gains in chemistry scores are significantly and positively related to the amount of laboratory time in a course—74 or more hours versus 34 or less. However, as Watson[7] has noted:

[3] Educational Services, Inc., "The Physical Science Study Committee," *Quarterly Report*, (Winter-Spring, 1964), p. 4.

[4] Brownson, William E., and Schwab, Joseph J., "American Science Textbooks and Their Authors, 1915 and 1955," *The School Review*, *70* (Summer, 1963), p. 179.

[5] "According to the narrative reports from the States for fiscal year 1963 under title III, NDEA, most States estimate that of the secondary school science laboratories now in use, about one-half are inadequate." From Gruver, William J., "Can Your School Afford the New Science Programs?" *School Life*, *46*, (Jan.-Feb., 1964), p. 7. This article also reports costs of converting to programs with new course content.

[6] Anderson, K. E., "A Frontal Attack on the Basic Problem in Evaluation; The Achievement of the Objectives of Instruction in Specific Areas," *Journal of Experimental Education*, *18*, (March, 1950), pp. 163–174.

[7] Watson, Fletcher G., "Research on Teaching Science," in *Handbook of Research on Teaching*,

. . . the importance of laboratory work, which is expensive in student and instructor time, special rooms, and special apparatus, lies in more general aspects of learning 'how the scientist works'. Some examples of such aspects are 'the abilities of children to select and design equipment, to predict from principles, to operate carefully and accurately, to appraise results, to search for improved techniques and equipmental design, to apply statistical analysis, to describe data graphically and algebraically and to interpret data . . . .

Clearly, if one accepts the objectives of the newer science curriculums, it is necessary to provide adequate laboratories if these aims are to be accomplished.

### Teacher Training

As previously indicated, teachers in NCA accredited schools are required to have at least 18 semester hours of credit in the science field and at least 10 semester hours in each subject field to which they are assigned. With two exceptions, teachers did meet such requirements, and in many instances exceeded these minimal qualifications to a considerable extent. In addition, a part of this study was to determine how many teachers in each subject had attended a summer or year long institute or session during the last five years dealing with one of the new science curriculum programs. The following is the percentage of schools that were currently employing at least one such teacher in each of three fields; biology—50% of the 57 schools; chemistry—57%; physics—62%. Nineteen schools or 35% had at least one recently trained in *each* of these three fields. In the smaller high schools, a single teacher was often responsible for all of the science instruction thus involving four our more preparations each day.[8]

### Curriculum Guides

One-fourth of the schools had no curriculum guides available containing principles or concepts to be taught in a particular course. The schools that did have such guides usually were often relying on out-of-date, topical listing of content kinds of guides with little or no bibliographical information provided. Only about a half-dozen schools had or were seriously engaged in a study of the adequacy of their offerings. In most instances, new science teachers were given a textbook as the description of the course they were to teach.

### Examinations

Sample copies of teacher constructed examinations were obtained for each subject in most of the schools. Exceptions to this were in the case of PSSC physics where teachers were using the achievement examination provided with these materials in addition to their own. About 10 percent of the schools were using other kinds of standardized tests provided by textbook publishers, some of which were of rather poor quality; however, administrators generally recognized these deficiencies and were attempting to move away from such a practice. A general analysis of these examinations to identify outcomes teachers are seeking reveals the following:

1. Teachers were using a variety of test forms including multiple choice, essay, matching, completion, and labeling type items.
2. Particularly in general science tests, some teachers were including a minimum of quantitative problems in their examinations, and had set the level of difficulty of many items such that they would not discriminate well among high ability students.[9]
3. There was heavy reliance on items of classification, definition, and knowledge of facts

edited by Gage, N. L., American Educational Research Association, (Rand McNally and Co.; Chicago, 1963) p. 1043.

[8] It should be noted that this is not uncommon in stateside schools; a U. S. Office of Education study reports that 42.1 per cent of the nation's secondary school teachers in small schools (1–499) taught science four or more periods per day. It could be assumed that many of these teachers in small schools were teaching 3–4 different courses. Two-thirds of the dependents' high schools are in the 1–499 enrollment size category. See Obourn, Ellsworth and Brown, Kenneth E., *Science and Mathematics Teachers in Public High Schools*, (U. S. Office of Education: OE 29045, Washington, D.C., 1963) pp. 3–5.

[9] In addition to the discrimination function of a test, a recent study has suggested that more difficult examinations motivate the brighter pupil to greater achievement than do easier examinations. See Sax, Gilbert, and Reade, Marybell, "Achievement as a Function of Test Difficulty Level," *American Educational Research Journal*, *1*, (January, 1964), pp. 22–25.

(up to 95% of the items on some tests) as opposed to items eliciting comprehension, application, generalization, problem solving, etc.

While the use of commercial tests generally is not considered a desirable teaching procedure, the quality of examinations developed for some of the newer curriculums[10] is distinctly superior to most tests, if understood by the teacher using them. There was some indication that many of the items on general science examinations, and in some of the other subjects, tended to deal more with technological matters rather than directly with science.

## Student Reactions

In each of the 40 schools visited last fall, a stratified sample of students representing various degrees of ability and involvement in the school's activity program were asked to complete a questionnaire dealing with various aspects of their instructional program. A total of 460 students responded to this question: "To what extent have your experiences in a dependents' high school contributed effectively to your knowledge and understanding in the following areas?" Responses marked "much" were assigned a weighing of 4; some—3; little—2; and none—1. Using this scale, students' average ratings were as follows:

3.60—Knowing and understanding history and government
3.51—Understanding and using mathematics
3.48—Helping you to understand world affairs
3.37—Expressing yourself well in speaking or writing
3.19—*Understanding the scientific world*
3.08—Speaking and writing a foreign language
2.87—Appreciation of music, art, and literature
2.21—Preparing for a vocation not requiring college

It should be noted that this was an inadequate sampling of opinion in most schools to permit any inferences about the population, and the ratings were in no way used to make a judgment about the adequacy of the program. However, these students did tend to regard goals of science instruction somewhat lower than might be expected for the kind of environment they live in.

## Conclusions

NCA visitors agreed that many teachers were doing a remarkably good job of science teaching despite frequent discouraging efforts to obtain supplies and equipment needed. Some teachers had brought overseas with them apparatus or specimens knowing such would be difficult to obtain. Study of local plant and animal life were important parts of many programs. The science teachers generally were well qualified for the subjects they were assigned, even though in many small schools a single teacher might be responsible for instruction in all sciences thus involving several preparations each day. The finding that a third of these schools have at least one recently trained teacher in each of three main fields and that a third of the schools have superior laboratories (except for physics) seems incompatible with any generalization suggesting a uniformly low quality science program.

The evidence from this study does seem to support the following conclusions:

1. Many of the observations recorded in this study could appropriately be made about a substantial number of stateside schools. Total science programs in some dependents' schools are clearly stronger than those provided in many accredited schools within the 19-state region.
2. Elective courses for students highly motivated in the field of science are not available in many schools. Well guided opportunities in programmed learning and/or independent study, involving a variety of materials and media, would do much to improve on this.
3. While much progress has been made in updating the content of the physics program, much less has been done in chemistry and biology. This study has not aimed to impugn authors of "conventional science textbooks, but does suggest that local faculties should carefully study the aims and accomplishments of existing programs, and be provided with the means necessary to select the best materials and procedures available where updating is needed.

[10] For an explication of special use made of Bloom's *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives* see Klinckmann, Evelyn, "The BSCS Grid for Test Analysis," in *BSCS News Letter, 19,* (September, 1963), pp. 17–21.

4. About one-fifth of the laboratories are inferior in terms of space, stations, equipment, or supplies; the remainder appear to be as good as or better than typical stateside laboratories. Efforts should be added through staff personnel to determine minimal needs and requirements of basic equipment, depending on the school's side, and make these available in another year.
5. The effect of NSF institutes has definitely made inroads into the dependents' schools with half or more of them having at least one recently trained teacher in each of the three sciences. New personnel should be deployed so as to place one such person in each school in order that a program of in-service education aimed at curricular improvement can draw upon this recent training.
6. There is considerable need for improvement in the quality of teacher constructed examinations so as to move away from a preponderance of factual recall and taxonomic type items to those eliciting higher order thought processes. This can also be done on an in-service basis using the considerable materials available.
7. The system for procuring supplies and equipment is often inefficient, particularly at some of the more remote locations.

## Implications

Many of the conditions described in this study are common to other areas of the overseas dependents' school system—securing qualified personnel, providing adequate supplies and equipment at the time and place needed, and supporting a continuous program of school improvement. The problem of getting this job done in a school many miles away from the United States is difficult as local administrators often have little control over these essential factors as stateside practitioners do.

Under a reorganization within the Department of Defense, branches of the services will assume responsibility for the academic administration of schools in specified geographic areas and thereby perhaps be in a better position in many cases to provide staff personnel on a consultant basis to assist local teachers. Effective July 1, 1964, the Army will administer schools in the European and outlying areas, the Navy will serve schools in the Atlantic area, and the Air Force will be responsible for dependent education in the Pacific area. Already accomplished under this reorganization have been a unified teacher recruitment system, appointment of a Director for dependent education in the Department of Defense, determination of a standardized system for computing the pupil-teacher ratio, and plans are being made for centralized purchasing, storing, and distribution of school-unique items in 1965. This reorganization offers considerable potential for increased efficiency for some schools as well as providing a better basis for seeking funds from Congress to support these schools. However, improvement out in the schools has thus far been retarded because of funding limitations under a per pupil limitation system of financing these schools. Either economies will need to be forthcoming rather soon as a result of the reorganization, or the per pupil limitation will need to be substantially increased, if the dependents' schools are to keep abreast of the many solid developments in secondary education during the sixties.

The task ahead for those responsible for the administration of these schools must be to make every effort possible, in those schools where updating is needed, to assure that dependents' schools are not among those described by Bentley Glass:[11]

> The biology actually being taught in the schools today is twenty years behind the advancing front of science, and in important respects is a full century in arrears.

The new biology curriculums, as in the other sciences, represent the best efforts of teams of scientists and teachers to aid students to understand what science is and how the scientist works. There need not be blanket adoption of package programs; on the contrary, many skilled teachers are doing a first-rate job of selecting the best from the variety of new materials available. Although more internal evaluation of the objectives of the new programs has been done than any other materials in history, the attainment of many of the new programs' aims re-

[11] Glass, Bentley, "Renascent Biology," *School Review*, 70, (Spring, 1962), p. 17.

mains to be evaluated using a variety of techniques including the use of external criteria. Thoughtful consideration of the approach to be followed in studying the sciences will do much to aid students in understanding what Bruner[12] calls the "structure" of this discipline.

The idea of having the American family abroad is a planned element of a long-range program of United States leadership in the Western world. Teachers and administrators in dependents' schools, as well as military officials, devote considerable effort to improving understanding between Americans and host nation citizens. Public relations in such historic sites as Berlin, Rome, Tokyo, or Taipei is more appropriately termed international relations, and dependents' schools' teachers and students deserve the support needed to provide the strongest program possible under the circumstances in which they find themselves.

[12] Bruner, Jerome S., *The Process of Education*, (Cambridge, Mass., Harvard University Press, 1962), p. 31.

NORMAN BURNS,* *University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois*

# Changing Concepts of Higher Education[1]

## THE DEMANDS ON HIGHER EDUCATION TODAY

FOR THOSE who have any acquaintanceship with the educational literature of the day, there is no need to dwell on the nature of the changes to which higher education must accommodate itself in these times.

The continually rising percentages of our youth and adults who go to college, the constantly widening range of types and levels of ability respresented in our student bodies as the numbers increase, and the whole set of technological, sociological, and economic developments which combine to produce a world of ever-growing complexity are common knowledge.

For higher education these changes mean a broadening range of purposes—the acceptance of responsibility for educating many more persons in many different kinds of educational programs. Practitioners must be prepared for the proliferation of specialities needed in a complex society, but at the same time the values of liberal education must be preserved. never before in history has so much been expected of an educational system.

## THE INDIVIDUAL INSTITUTION CANNOT DO EVERYTHING

But what is true of higher education in general is not, and can not be true of the individual college or university. The total range of higher educational programs continues to grow, but no single institution can hope to cover anything like the total possible range of educational programs if it is to be an effective educational agent. The college or university under private control has always been in a position to define and limit its purposes, but this has not been true of the state institution which, in most cases, has accepted the responsibility for admitting all students who have completed their secondary education.

But in most states today the state university is no longer required to assume the entire burden of higher education to be provided at public expense. The burden is shared with state colleges and public junior colleges and, as these institutions come to occupy a prominent place in the educational structure, it becomes possible for the state university to exclude those of limited ability. This movement has had its greatest development in California where, under the master plan, the University of California can limit admissions to the highest 12.5 percent of the high school graduating classes.

It is clear, then, that where multiple opportunities for public higher education exist in a community, state, or region the opportunity for individual institutions to limit their functions, and hence to sharpen their focus, is enhanced. This is all to the good. But even in an area where there are no other opportunities for higher education at public expense, is the institution serving that area forced to respond to all the demands made upon it? I think not. No institution of higher education, public or private, should supinely reflect the

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[1] Taken from an address delivered to the University of Akron on Founder's Day, December 11, 1963.

social pressures brought to bear upon it. An institution has, on the contrary, a responsibility for leadership—for interpreting the many demands made upon it in terms of what makes good educational sense. It has an obligation to refuse to overextend itself, and to decline to perform services which it does not feel are appropriate.

### Institutions Need a Rationale

To have a sound and consistent basis for making decisions on what it should and should not attempt to do, an institution must have what all too few of them do have, a rationale, a philosophical position clearly understood and agreed to by all those connected with the institution. This provides the basis for deciding whether a particular request for additional service should be met and, if so, how? What students and how many students should the institution attempt to serve, and how? Surely, the door of the public institution serving a clientele which does not have other educational opportunities available to it must be open but there should be someone at the door, not a bouncer, but a friendly attendant directing and assisting those who enter, and even turning away those who simply cannot profit sufficiently from the experience to justify the costs involved.

In the seller's market of today, institutions of higher education have more freedom to define their purposes and control their admissions than they had in the past when students were in relatively short supply. But I am disturbed to see how some of our institutions are using this freedom. For a long time we have been saying that diversity is one of the major strengths of American higher education—that in the great variety of institutions offering different kinds of programs to different kinds of students we have a mechanism through which the manifold educational needs of American society can be met. But things are not working out quite this way. Now that institutions can make some choices about what they will do and to whom they will do it, many an institution is interested, not in trying to improve its service to the clientele it has been serving right along, but rather in becoming more like the traditionally prestigious institution.

### Diversity and Institutional Quality

One hears a great deal of talk about limiting enrollments to the "better" students. Institutions talk about raising their standards, and they are using the words "better" and "standards" in a limited academic sense. The students they want are those who possess in large measure the verbal and linguistic skills traditionally expected of college students. In other words, diversity in higher education, that is, differences among institutions in the kinds of tasks performed, is a splendid thing, but let the other fellow do the more menial jobs. What we want to do in our institution is to offer "respectable" programs to "respectable" students. Despite all our fine talk about diversity, it looks as though many of our institutions don't really take pride in what they have been doing. As soon as they are in a position to do so, they try to acquire the characteristics of the prestige model which they have set for themselves.

What this really means is that we have not accepted the only definition of excellence that is appropriate in American higher education today, that is, that excellence is a meaningful term only in relation to what is being attempted. An institution of high quality is, then, one that is effective in achieving the purpose which it has set for itself. In these terms, it is better to be a first-rate technical school than a second-rate liberal arts college; it is better to be a superior, simply organized, single-purpose institution than a pale imitation of a complex university; it is better to limit one's efforts to maintaining a good undergraduate college than to offer graduate work of something less than highest quality. This is basically a question of the system of values to which we as people subscribe, and I am afraid we still think it is better to be a mediocre philosopher than a first-class plumber.

## Institutional Unity and Purpose

Closely related to the matter of determining institutional function is the problem of securing singleness of aim in an institution. How does an institution achieve a sense of wholeness? How does it unite its members in a common endeavor looking toward the attainment of accepted ends? This is a difficult problem in any organization; it is particularly difficult in an institution of higher education. President Dodds states the problem nicely in *The Academic President—Educator or Caretaker.*[1] He says.

> "... the loyalty of a professor is to a greater degree than among business men, an ambivalent mingling of loyalty to the organization with an opposing loyalty—indeed an obligation—to himself and his profession to transcend, even though he cannot ignore, the demands of team play."

But why worry about achieving and preserving institutional unity of purpose, this sense of wholeness? The answer is this: The institutionalized form of higher education provides for relating the various fields of knowledge in the learning process as well as in research. If the institution were to break up and each special piece were to fly off on its own tangent, the results would be extremely serious. In the first place, the possibility of educating the whole man would be greatly lessened if it were not lost entirely. In the second place, the progress in research in the several disciplines would be slowed without the interdisciplinary conversations which the institutional structure encourages.

It is clear that in an institution of higher education we have divided loyalities to a degree unheard of in any other kind of organization, that is, loyalty to one's professional or scholarly field of interest on the one hand and to one's institution on the other. McGrath in his volume, *Memo to a College Faculty Member*, points out that by its very nature the institution of higher education is subjected to stronger centrifugal, fragmenting forces than any other type of organization. He is disturbed about the operation of the centrifugal forces in the liberal arts college; how much stronger, inevitably, are these forces in a complex university composed of schools and colleges of widely different types!

A complex university does not have singleness or even consistency of purpose. What kind of overriding purpose can be identified in an institution which includes programs for the preparation of humanists, physicians, electronic technologists, embalmers, doctors of philosophy, dental assistants, creative artists, accountants, theologians, physicists, hotel managers, historians, and irrigation engineers! Clearly, purposes can be stated for each of these programs in terms of desired behavioral change, but what of the over-all purposes of the institution?

## A New View of Institutional Unity

If there are any overall purposes, can they be stated in anything except a very high level of generality, a level of generality so high as to render them useless as a unifying force? The answer is that we must look at the problem in a different light. We must modify the conception to which we have held in the past, and to which we still cling, that unity in an educational institution stems from, assumes, and is dependent upon a commonly agreed upon purpose or closely related set of purposes. The institution of higher education possesses certain characteristics which render it quite unlike other kinds of institutions. Its faculty members, each with certain professional competencies not to be questioned by anyone in the hierarchical structure, are not in the usual sense employees whose activities can readily be directed toward a predetermined organizational goal. Its faculty or faculties are typically delegated a very large measure of authority for determining institutional policy within the broad

[1] *The Academic President—Educator or Caretaker?* By Harold W. Dodds. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1962.

goals set by the governing authority.

What we have, then, is not a single purpose in a complex university, but rather purposes for each of the schools and divisions, consistent with one another, we would hope, but separate. And we have not only different purposes for the different schools and divisions but, because of the individualism which is inescapable in a good faculty, we find that each faculty member has his own set of purposes which may, and commonly are, somewhat at variance with those of his colleagues.

Perhaps we need to think of institutional unity in quite a different framework. Perhaps we need to think of it in terms of faculty concern, on an institutional-wide basis, (1) with the education of the whole person, not merely the specialist, (2) with the maintenance of appropriate balance among the institutional offerings which, if it is to be achieved, demands recognition of the rights and legitimate interests of other fields of study or parts of the program, (3) that all programs in the institution be of high quality. (Quality is defined here not in terms of academic absolutes but, rather, in terms of the effectiveness with which the stated and accepted responsibilities are discharged.)

In suggesting that institutional unity so defined is a realistic definition, I do not mean to imply that institutional unity so conceived is easily attained. Quite the contrary. Since large authority for institutional policy-determination has been delegated to the faculties of our institutions of higher education, it is squarely up to the faculties to keep the totality of the institution constantly in mind and not to sacrifice it as they attempt to strengthen their own fields. Faculties must exercise great care, in pursuing their own best interests and in responding to the claims of the discipline or professional field they represent, that they do not lose sight of the totality of the educational process. Institutional unity in this sense can be secured, and the centrifugal, fragmenting forces can be effectively countered.

## The Urban University

Let us take a look at the urban institution in the light of the foregoing observations regarding institutional function and changing times. The democratization of higher education, as we have noted, is proceeding at a rapid rate and shows no signs of slacking off. You can accept whichever of the estimates of increasing enrollments appeals to you the most; the one thing of which we can be certain is that the numbers and percentages of our people attending institutions of higher education will continue to grow rapidly. The times demand it.

The urban university will share with the junior community college the honor and the challenge of carrying a major portion of the load. Of this there is little doubt since our people are moving to the urban centers. (I am referring here, of course, to the institution that is urban in the sense that it views itself primarily as a community-serving institution, not the institution that merely happens to be located in an urban setting.) My earlier observations about the importance of developing some kind of rationale by which to determine which of the possible manifold services should be performed are particularly pertinent in the case of the urban university. On this institution, serving a local community, the pressures are more immediate and more urgent than on an institution whose clientele is spread over a wider area. American higher education generally is close to the people and more immediately responsive to their demands than is generally true in higher educational systems elsewhere in the world. The community-serving institution is the closest of all.

The problem of preserving institutional unity in a complex institution is also one of special concern to the urban university. The maintenance of the kind of faculty cohesiveness to which I was alluding—faculty concern on an institutional-wide basis with the totality of the educational process—is particularly difficult to achieve

in the urban institution. For one thing, the urban institution does not have an identifiable physical community of its own. Upon the completion of the day's work the faculty members scatter and lose themselves in the larger community and, for that matter, so do the students. The problem of maintaining a faculty community of interest is further complicated by widely different teaching schedules in an institution that operates from early morning until late evening. (The length of the day gives the urban university an important cost advantage in terms of effective utilization of physical facilities but it is, nevertheless, a force contributing to disunity.)

In response to the requirements of the times the urban university, like other higher institutions, is extending its activities. This may mean moving from the undergraduate to the graduate level, or from the lower levels of graduate work to the doctorate. It is my feeling that, in the building of graduate programs as in other aspects of its work, the urban institution owes its first loyalty to the urban area it serves. Of course in a large metropolitan area this can mean the development of a complex university with a full complement of professional schools and a full-blown graduate school providing, of course, that there is an effective demand for such an expansion. By effective demand I mean one which is supported, one way or another, by the necessary resources.

We need to examine the concept of community service. It is sometimes said that community service has two dimensions. It may be defined in terms of meeting commercial, industrial, professional, social, and cultural needs of the urban area or it may be defined in terms of the needs of students.

And, of course, because of mobility of our population today, students may need to learn to do many things for which there are few if any outlets in the immediate locality. For example, an urban institution may justify a school of engineering, not because of the existence of a large demand for engineers locally, but because the students want to learn engineering in their home community though they may sell their services elsewhere.

There is logic in the definition of community needs in terms of the needs of students, but this in application is a troublesome concept. Carried to its logical conclusion, community service defined in these terms could mean almost unlimited institutional expansion even in a rather small community. This would obviously be impossible on economic grounds.

It appears, then, that the definition of community service in terms of the cultural and occupational requirements of the locality is far the more useful one. Student demand for programs to prepare them for positions not available locally, or available only in limited numbers locally, should be honored by the urban institution only in exceptional circumstances if the institution is to be true to its charge.

This paper has attempted to look at some of the changing concepts of higher education growing out of the requirements of society today. Among the really new ideas, new in view of institutionalized higher education's long history, is the idea of the urban university. This is truly a product of the modern world, an institution already occupying an important place in American higher education and with a high potential for further service.

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# What's to Be Done with the Dropout When He Drops Back In?[1]

NOT ONLY on the Mr. Novak TV program of January 7, 1964, called "The Exiles," but on many other TV programs whenever the occasion presents itself, prominent national leaders and film stars plead with the dropout to drop back in and get his high school diploma. But nowhere do we find equally dramatic pleas to take a penetrating look at the conditions in the community and the school which help create the exile.

There are over 40 million youngsters in our public school system. Each one has his own peculiar abilities, shortcomings, frustrations, and aspirations. They come from different cultural environments, some of which have no regard whatever for education. Others have given it highest priority. Some of the youngsters learn quickly, others slowly. Some come to us with a wide range of aptitudes and interests, others with a very narrow range. Some are self sufficient and know where they are going; some must lean on their peers and their teachers for assurance and direction. There are those who cannot get enough of the kind of formal education we offer in our schools today. They are challenged by it and do fairly well in our kind of "show and tell" type curriculum. There is, however, a growing number of young people about whom we know very little. They have psychologically turned off the "educational faucet" and are sitting it out until that final day on which they are handed a slip of paper called a graduation diploma. At the extreme end of this latter group are students who do not graduate but rebelliously and impatiently await a sixteenth, or an eighteenth birthday which legally frees them from the torture of their school days.

## CHARACTERISTICS OF DROPOUTS

Two-fifths of the 40 million do not complete high school. They drop out as soon as they are able to do so legally. Grades 9 and 10 seem to be the crucial points at which many leave. From these two-fifths come the majority of juvenile delinquents and a high percentage of the girls who marry before the age of 17. The dropout group cuts across ethnic, social class, and geographic lines although the largest numbers are from lower class families. Many are members of minority groups. The problem is most serious in rural areas and very large cities. It has been intensified in the metropolitan areas through inmigration from rural areas, especially from the South and from Puerto Rico.

Studies indicate that children from a wide range of intelligence belong to the dropout group. While large numbers are classified as "slow learners," a nationwide study showed that seven-tenths of them had an IQ above 90. A New York study revealed that an eighth of the dropouts had an IQ above 110.

Many of the potential dropouts can be identified as early as the elementary school years. Symptoms such as reading retardation, subject matter failures, poor study habits, recurrent tardiness and

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[1] This paper was the keynote speech presented at the Eighth Annual Winter Workshop for Secondary School Principals on THE DROPOUT PROBLEM IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS, January 15–16, 1964, at the University of Minnesota. This winter workshop is jointly sponsored by the State Committee of the North Central Association and the Minnesota Association of Secondary School Principals.

truancy, persistent lack of interest in school work, non-participation in co-curricular activities, apparent emotional immaturity and personality disturbances are all signals. As they grow older they become more and more unsuccessful in meeting the standards of behavior in school and of performance on a job. They become misfits, are hostile and unruly, or passive and apathetic. They quit learning and dropout psychologically two or three years before they actually drop out physically. The average dropout is at least two years retarded in reading by the time he leaves school and nine out of ten have repeated at least one grade. The more obvious characteristic of the early school leaver is a record of difficulty and failure in our *academically oriented* curriculum.

The home and community backgrounds of the dropout create difficulties with which these youngsters cannot cope. Family life is often unstable or disrupted, causing a lack of emotional well-being. Parents often have limited education and are marginally unemployed. The family moves frequently in search of employment, making it extremely difficult for the youngster to relate to and identify himself with a school and a neighborhood which can give him the sense of security children need. Nutrition is likely to be bad and health practices poor. Children's acquaintance with an attractive and comfortable home and the aesthetic aspects of living such as the creative arts and crafts are limited. The home lacks books, magazines, and other materials which enrich the environment of youngsters who come from middle class homes.

School achievement is not highly valued in some cases. The middle class values held in our public school system with regard to standards of speech, cleanliness, and social behavior are incomprehensible to these youngsters and are looked upon with suspicion.

The dropout who comes from an ethnic group with its own respected culture looks upon his heritage as a liability rather than something to be valued, and, from a behavioral point of view, our schools have done very little to dispel such attitudes.

The impersonal and mechanistic nature of our mass society also fosters the dropout problem. Human beings have become social security numbers. The principal is proud of the size of his school. In fact, to be principal of a high school of 3,000 to 6,000 students means more money. With the huge faculties required in such a school the teachers are no more than numbers or insignificant cogs in the machinery of education. As a result, the adolescent in such a school becomes little more than another number in a most crucial period of his life. Educators committed to a democracy which accords highest esteem to the individual personality should focus on the urgency in our educational system to develop programs which concern themselves with the individual. This task is often spoken about and given lip service to, but too infrequently provided for in the curriculum.

The above factors vary in degree and kind in the role they play with each individual dropout. Once recognized, however, the school, together with community groups and organizations such as business and industry, labor, service groups, government agencies, and youth serving agencies must devise *preventive* programs as well as the *crash* programs of today.

It is not sufficient to peck away at today's dropouts at the ninth and tenth grade levels. The emphasis on study-work programs is only a temporary solution to alleviate the plight of thousands of unskilled and jobless youth. The long range solution seeks to enrich the environment of youth from early childhood onward, discover the potential dropout as early as possible, and provide him with an educational program that will help him become self-reliant, constructive, responsible, able to make the most of his abilities, and adaptable to change. The Phi Delta Kappa Commission on the Prevention of Juvenile Deliquency maintains that teenage alienated youth can be cut in half if these children are caught early

enough and the school curriculum is tailored to fit their needs.

## Factors Which Influence Youth Early in Life

*Nutrition and its health implications* play a vital part in the development of children and youth. Nutrition education must become an integral part of the basic education of the public. It should be conducted with persistence and imagination, making full use of all media of communication and enlisting the active participation of the parents, the mothers in particular. Adult education classes can play a particularly effective role here.

Pre-school children belong to the most vulnerable age group with respect to certain physical and social needs. They are neither able to understand nor to articulate about these needs. It is the one to six —especially the one to four—age group that is most difficult to reach with services outside the home.

The effect of protein-calorie malnutrition on certain infectious diseases is well recognized but what research has reported on the retarded mental and psycho-motor development of protein-calorie malnutrition is practically unknown to the public. The vicious cycle of protein-calorie malnutrition and apathy is also well-documented.

Children beyond the pre-school age and adolescents are rather tenacious about giving up some of the food habits they are accustomed to. If health instruction in school is to be at all effective, other community agencies have to be called upon for reinforcement. It will be necessary to enlist the family in the endeavor. In the case of certain ethnic groups the way to an improved diet is to work with the family on developing balanced meals based on the nutritious foods familiar to them.

Most of the learning that takes place in school is highly dependent upon the *speech repertoire* the child brings to school. By the time the normal middle class child is ready to begin school he has acquired, largely through osmosis, most of the phonology and grammar of his native language together with a substantial vocabulary. The disadvantaged child will most probably have acquired a limited speech repertoire including a sub-standard dialect of English at variance with the dialect of of the teacher and some of his peers in school. Thus he is immediately at a disadvantage upon entering the elementary school.

We also know that children attending school in a predominantly lower class community achieve less than those attending schools serving mixed or middle class communities. The difference is primarily due to a *lack of intellectual stimulation at home* and in the neighborhood and the inability to cope with an unrealistic curriculum and teachers who possess middle class values. If our nation allows schools to be made up predominantly of children coming from lower class circumstances, it is deliberately contributing to a waste of potential talent we cannot afford to lose.

*Nursery school programs* in pleasant surroundings for three and four year olds provide intellectual stimulation for the enrichment of the basic speech repertoire and language patterns which have a significant bearing upon the structuring of the child's mind. Several cities are developing special pre-primers to meet the needs of the culturally disadvantaged child. Large books, beautifully illustrated in full color, incorporating characters representing the different races and containing story situations which deal with the immediate environment and gradually moving into the mainstream of the total American cultural background are bound to stimulate these children.

We need buildings where groups of 20 to 25 three and four year olds under the supervision of specially prepared teachers and assistants who come from neighboring teacher-training institutions or from the upper classmen in the nearby high schools can spend the day. In addition, social workers work with the home, school, and various social agencies in the community

providing opportunities for them to work with each other. They educate and enlist the mothers in assuming responsibilities for the solution of family, school, and neighborhood problems.

In Racine, Wisconsin, an all-day kindergarten is provided for a pilot group of 20 children from disadvantaged homes. The children follow a typical school program in the morning with the afternoons devoted to hearing stories, looking at pictures, books, slides, watching selected films and TV programs, taking frequent field trips to parks, museums, stores, farms, and factories. Such carefully structured readiness programs help in building a background of experiences which later give meaning and motivation for the regular school tasks.

The higher Horizons program in New York City gives similar enriching experiences. Third grade children are exposed to a wealth of films, exhibits, books. Trips are made to museums, parks, libraries, airports, business places. They attend special children's concerts and plays. Junior high school youngsters attend plays, ballet, concerts, opera, visit college campuses in addition to making field trips closely tied in with their class studies. These programs have been found to contribute to improved morale and interest in school, to regular school attendance and to gains in reading ability.

If the disadvantaged youngster must fit into our present day program of studies in the typical school curriculum, *he must learn how to read well.* Hammering away at enriching the child's cultural experiences in nursery, kindergarten and the primary grades enables us to move on to systematic instruction in reading geared to his special needs. A carefully worked out program will substantially reduce the remedial reading programs we see everywhere in our junior and senior high schools today. Materials relating to the daily life of the child should be used. Special attention needs to be given to a listening program and the development of good speech patterns. A child used to saying to his playmates, "Wacha gonna get for eats tanite?" will have a difficult time reading, "What are you having for supper tonight?" Administrators and English teachers must enlist the aid of language laboratories to improve the speech habits of the disadvantaged group. Programed learning, individualized instruction, and many experiences in small eight to twelve member groups provide unlimited opportunities for intensive work. Once children have learned to read they can have realistic hopes for success in their school tasks. Their motivation increases and their self-image is enhanced.

We know that the experiences a human being has and the people with whom he comes in contact largely help to form his behavior. Research indicates definitely that children and adolescents behave like carbon copies of both real life and TV models. Such findings conclude that *the model*, real or on the screen, has an important influence on the personality development of youth. If this is the case, then it is one of the primary tasks of administrators, teachers, and leaders in the community to see to it that young people, especially from the disadvantaged areas, be surrounded by positive experiences and models in the community as well as on TV and film.

We spend much time in the classroom talking about the lives of national heroes and leaders remote from the daily lives of the youngsters. We should be spending more time with community and state leaders who can come into the school and the classroom and touch the lives of these youth—artists, statesmen, engineers, mechanics, technicians, doctors, educators who have come up from minority groups and disadvantaged communities to contribute to our way of life.

The Negro, the Mexican, the American Indian must be awakened to the magnificence of their cultures. The school has a real job on its hands in curricularizing cross-cultural studies where youngsters from all cultural backgrounds and socio-economic levels work together. A little less of dates, names of generals, causes and effects of wars and instead, an introduc-

tion of the cultural-anthropological discipline into the American school from kindergarten through junior college would be of greater benefit in today's world.

### The School's Organization and Curriculum Must Provide for Individual Differences

A school which provides an inviting learning environment for each individual in its student population does not have the usual barren four-walled classrooms. It has huge rooms or suites of rooms with facilities such as individual learning booths, arrangements for small group sessions and large sessions. Teachers work together in "teams" rather than "against each other."

For the flexibility needed in learning, the organizational structure of the school provides for school divisions—primary, intermediary, junior secondary, senior secondary—rather than grades. It is said that this kind of school organization benefits the gifted and creative. There is a greater urgency for such organizational patterns in the case of the student who is always falling behind in our rigid, formal type of school organization. This flexibility will remove the stigma of the typical "track programs" advocated to take care of the potential dropout. Time will be available for many special courses. The college bound student will be able to take courses like typing and speed writing. The students preparing for other fields can take courses in the arts, humanities, sciences for which they may have developed an interest. Such "developmental curricular programs" are reviewed several times a year by the student with his teacher-guide (who works with groups of 10 to 15 students for periods of 3 to 6 years), the counselor, and the parents.

More consideration needs to be given to spiral learning in the curriculum. This is especially important in the development of skills and the deeper and better understanding of concepts. Skills, ideas, and generalizations are introduced early and given deeper and broader elaboration in each successive school division. Basic concepts in physics can be introduced very simply in the early grades, elaborated and illustrated in each successive school division, and related to every day experiences through field trips and other activities.

During the very active junior high school years when children from the ages of 12 to 15 frequently rebel at the "show and tell" type of curriculum and want to be doing, constructing, analyzing, inquiring, the curriculum must provide for problem solving activities. It must also provide experiences in which the students can contribute to community welfare. The curriculum should provide for the learning of job skills and hobby skills in worthwhile tasks such as beautifying the community, the making and repairing of toys and appliances, and the many other activities.

The subject matter fields in the curriculum must be taught in such a way that they relate closely to the world of work and the world of leisure. Students should always be aware of how the disciplines prepare them for their future lives. For teachers to work together on curricular innovations, physical arrangements should make it convenient for them to get together. Science and mathematics suites must be located adjacent to the industrial arts and home economics suites. Men from business, the professions, and industry should sit with the educators to develop the polytechnical phase of education.

Most of all, the crash programs which we are about to discuss need to be incorporated into the regular curriculum. This means federal aid but let us face it—we have had federal aid for years and thrived on it.

Cocurricular activities, such as specialty clubs, hobby clubs, science clubs, preprofessional clubs, which give young people insights into new fields such as the food industry, horticulture, conservation, politics, landscaping, designing, can become motivational factors which help keep students in school.

Young people need to study the many ways people have of earning a living.

Creating an awareness that college is within reach, that technicians are the supporters of science, that there are untold job opportunities for those with the necessary skills and the ability to adjust is a task in which the school has a very direct involvement. Here it must take on a leadership role backed by labor and business, community and parents.

*The potential and the actual dropout have special problems needing special treatment.* Most often these young people are kinesthetically and visually rather than verbally oriented. Children with these characteristics demand a unique and different curriculum. To develop their strengths and remedy their weaknesses requires a wide range and variety of learning materials. There can be no one textbook in a class. Books must be written for many different reading levels. The school must make intensive use of technological devices such as the film, TV, models, and many varieties of graphic materials. Programed materials must be developed—not year length courses but specific units of a course—to encourage independent work on a particular topic or skill. Individual instruction technology must be employed: individual reading pacers and similar devices; individual viewing and listening equipment for slides, filmstrips, films, and recordings; language laboratories of all types; teaching materials containing carefully worked out verbal or pictorial programs with various ingenious mechanical or electrical arrangements designed to test the student's reaction and inform him of his progress and his errors.

The big job of the teacher in the classroom is to find out what each learning resource can contribute to an optimal learning situation for the student. The potential dropout and the dropout need much individualization of instruction, opportunities for independent study, carefully supervised, with materials adapted to their specific needs. Here programed units play an important role. Display sessions or small group (3 to 6 students) sessions where students can discuss what they have learned in the individual programs give them the confidence and assurance they desperately need.

Such opportunities for the dropout will avoid the stigma attached to being put into a subject matter course taught several years below where he belongs chronologically but which he needs. We cannot afford to have him drop back into a school where he will be put into the same old classes, receiving the same low grades, the same rebuffs, feeling the same resentment and insecurity he had before dropping out. To return to the same English class where Shakespeare was bisected and dissected when he cannot read above the fifth grade level is no answer to the problem of the dropout dropping back in.

Laboratory methods developed in the Winnetka and Dalton Plans emphasizing the independent study approach to enable students to move through a program, each at his own rate, should be re-examined. Experiments indicated that these plans did help in reducing retardation and in speeding up the rate of the student learning. One of the reasons they were not adopted on a wider scale was that the programs were demanding of teacher time at a period when mass and individual instructional technology and team teaching were not in existence. Such programs also require abilities in a teacher which present-day teaching training institutions, including the liberal arts colleges, are not fostering. These plans demanded a student-teacher ratio small enough in certain instances to allow the teacher to give adequate individual guidance. The day has come when we should again take a look at such organizational plans.

## The Crash Programs of Today Must Become Part of the Curriculum

For the dropout and potential dropout, work-study programs are of great help. These programs are in reality nothing new. They have been a part of vocational education in some schools for many years.

Examples of such programs are to be found in the New York City Work Experience Program. On the basis of the promis-

ing results in the pilot program carried out in one vocational and one academic high school, the program has been extended to include ten more high schools.

Mornings are spent in school and students report for work in private industry in the afternoon. They hold jobs as errand boy, stock clerk, or clerical worker. Classes in school are small (15 to 20). The teacher-coordinator gives part of the school instruction and supervises the work on the job. School instruction emphasizes improvement in the basic skills. Reading, job orientation, guidance, enrichment opportunities, and articulation between school and out-of-school environment are stressed. Many visual aids are used. A bulletin developed in pilot schools includes materials for 13 different units the teacher can use or adapt for his particular group. Of those enrolled in the school year 1959–1960, more than 30% returned to school to get their diplomas, 30% continued in the work experience program, and 24% became fully employed or entered the armed services.

Seven cities in New York are participating in the School to Employment Program (STEP) under the auspices of the state department of education. This is primarily a work-study program for fifteen year olds identified as potential dropouts. In this program students spend two hours a day in school followed by work in public agencies. They are supervised by the school and paid from state funds.

Lane County, Oregon, conducts a summer work camp in which 16 year olds work at cleaning up and maintaining state parks.

The Phi Delta Kappa Commission working on the juvenile delinquency problem proposes a work-study program for youth from 13 to 18 years of age. It would be carried out in three stages. The younger boys would work in groups, under school supervision, in jobs outside the regular labor market. These are called "sheltered workshop" situations. The work would contribute to the well-being of the community, such as maintaining parks, school grounds, beaches, and recreational areas. The boys would then move on to part-time jobs in business and industry still under school supervision. The third stage would require the boys to work full time in a regular job with some guidance and supervision by the school or other employment service personnel. This program would be supplemented by other community agencies that would provide opportunities for recreational activities.

Through the creation of a job corps, a work-training program, and a work-study program, the President in his proposed Economic Opportunity Act of 1964 would enlist some 100,000 young men whose background, health, and education make them least fit for useful work. Half of them will work in camps and centers around the country on special conservation projects designed to give some education, to provide useful work experience, and to enrich the natural resources of the country. The others will receive a blend of training, basic education, and work experience in job training centers. A national work-training program operated by the Labor Department will provide for 200,000 men and women between the ages of 16 and 21. State and local governments and non-profit agencies are to develop this program.

The experience, the income, and the sense of purpose which useful, full or part-time work brings to disadvantaged youth means the difference between finishing school or dropping out. These young people will participate in vital community activities, from hospitals and playgrounds to libraries and settlement houses, since there are not enough people to staff these places. Programs already have been initiated by the government, such as the Vocational Education Act, for youth to help those without training or skills.

At best these programs are only a temporary measure to solve an emergency situation. The students participating in such programs carry the stigma of a second class citizen. It is as if the powers that be were saying, "We really don't know what to do with you. Automation has made you expendable . . ." The

thought is repugnant, but nevertheless true, that a country's technological prowess can create slums and poverty rather than provide for the beautiful and the good life promised to all of its citizens. Foundation, government, and educational institutions cannot continue to provide crumbs for the disadvantaged. And that is exactly what we are doing with the crash programs described above.

We are now at the end of the pioneering phase of our American civilization. The second phase is upon us but we seem to lack the far-visioned and dynamic leadership which will create the new jobs and the new work needed in the aesthetic and creative phase of our future civilization. Any kind of work-study-training innovation or program must be incorporated in the total educational structure of our country. Programs as devised in this article are important for the liberal education of *all youth*. Such programs can erase the strong, emerging class lines in our culture. The cost of such new type curricula would be cheap in contrast to what the community and the nation pay for the unemployable or delinquent youth.

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